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THE SCHOOL MEETING.—A SKETCH.

ON the doors of the blacksmith-shop, the tavern, the village store, and on the guide-board down by the cross-roads, people for several days had noticed little handbills calling together the taxable inhabitants of —, "to take into consideration the propriety of building a new school-house." The village pastor, on the preceding Sunday, had also read the notice from the pulpit, adding a most urgent solicitation to all of his male hearers to "come out," and do what they could towards obtaining the much-needed building.

It was scarce dark, when a few persons congregated around the door of the old school-house at the bottom of the hill, waiting until the proper moment to enter. They were coming from all directions—from over the hill, from the four roads that met by the school-house, and numbers came stalking across the fields.

Soon one of the trustees appeared, with a couple of tallow candles, and a large key. After inserting the latter in several apertures (all of which extended entirely through the door), he succeeded in unfastening the door, and the people poured in.

The little fourteen-by-eighteen room was speedily filled; the people crowding on the tops of the desks, with their muddy boots resting upon the benches. Numbers gathered around the stove, although there was not a spark of fire within. This position, however, afforded the opportunity of ejecting tobacco-juice against it, and of rolling the exhausted quids beneath it.

The audience was divided into two parties—the one in favor of the new school-house,

and the other opposed to it. It was known that the latter were five or six in the majority, and that they were very determined in their opposition. The friends of education were resolved to be conciliatory, knowing that they could not otherwise succeed.

Directly a tall man arose and said:

"Gentlemen, I nominate, as chairman of this meeting, Samuel T. Jones, Esq. Is the motion seconded?"

A half dozen shouted "Aye!" The nominee was known as one of the bitterest opponents of the new school-house. Our friends, however, voted for him. They knew that his election could not be prevented, and that as chairman he would be more harmless than a mere voter. Besides, they wished to seem friendly toward their opponents, and here was a good opportunity.

Samuel T. Jones, Esq., sat in majestic silence, and when the tall spokesman announced that he was "unanimously elected, without a dissenting voice," he sat a moment, as if to digest this honor, arose, walked with a calm dignity to the table, surveyed the audience, and said:

"Fellow-citizens, it is necessary that we should have a secretary. Who will you nominate?"

"I nominate Aaron Reed," called out a weak voice by the stove, from which quarter also came a grum "I second that nomination."

Aaron Reed was a young gentleman of eighteen, who was "reading law," and was regarded as the rising "phenomenon" of the place. There had not been a gathering of any kind, of late, at which he had

not figured as secretary or vice-president. He had essayed, on one or two occasions, a political speech, and was warmly applauded by the admiring adherents of his own party. He always wore his overcoat flung over his shoulders, and fastened by one button beneath his chin. This he deliberately laid aside, walked to the desk, sat down on a chair without a back, pulled out a gold pencil, and calmly awaited for the meeting to progress.

"Now, fellow-citizens, we are ready for business," said the chairman. "Will some one please state the object of this gathering?"

What a farce was this! Was there one present who had not known the object for the past two weeks?

Now came a pause—the lull that precedes the tempest. Our friends waited for the opposition to take some step; but seeing that such was not their intention, Mr. Brown, one of the trustees, arose, and pleasantly said:

"Mr. Chairman, the object of this meeting, as stated in the notices, is to 'take into consideration the propriety of erecting a new school-house.' As this is a matter in which every one present is interested, it is not our wish that any thing be done hastily, or without due deliberation. Therefore, before any vote be taken, I would ask that there be a free interchange of views. I am well aware that there is considerable opposition, but I trust the most of it will disappear. The objections, as they have reached me, are, first, the heavy taxes that will necessarily be incurred by building a school-house; and secondly, *that we don't need a new school-house.*

"To this latter objection I shall briefly refer. This building was erected over forty years ago, when the oldest of us were boys. We received our education in it, and have some veneration for these walls. While it was good-enough for those days, I contend that it is not good enough now. These hacked and mended desks, these walls from which the plastering is falling, these little, dirty window-panes, these backless chairs, these two faded pictures of the hemispheres, these low ceilings, and tumble-down porch—and, most of all, this little room, into which we have to squeeze

our children, so that they have scarcely breathing-room;—all these have served their day."

Mr. Brown sat down. His few remarks were intended as a "feeler," and to bring out the opposition. Near the stove was a coughing, spitting, *ahemming*, and shuffling of feet, as if some person were making ready to rise. A dozen smiled (among them Mr. Brown), for they knew what this meant. "Uncle John," one of the opposition, who sent three children to school, was getting ready to throw a bombshell among his enemies. A round, red face, with an illuminated nose, slowly came up like the rising moon, above the horizon of the stove, and he shouted in a voice that could have been heard a quarter of a mile away—

"*We don't want no new school-house; this is good enough. I'm satisfied to have my children educated here, and I guess so is most of the people. Do you s'pose Ben Franklin or Ginerall Jackson had a better school-house than this to larn in?*"

Uncle John was a devoted admirer of "Old Hickory!" He was never known to converse an hour without bringing his name in.

"No, sir," he shouted again; "the Ginerall hadn't no better school-house than this; and didn't he larn? He knowed enough to whip the Britishers at New Orleans, and he knowed enough to govern this country a mighty sight better nor the President we've got over us now. What I say is, that if the Ginerall could larn in sich a school-house as this, why can't our children? I'm opposed to these new-fangled notions. Last year we had to build a new church, and now it's a school-house that's wanted. Good heavens! what are we coming to?"

"And Uncle John began a new house last week," added Mr. Brown, in his pleasant manner; "why did he do that?"

"'Cause the old one is worn out!" called out Uncle John in a loud voice from behind the stove.

"Precisely! and that is why we wish a new school-house. I noticed last week, also, that Uncle John was taking a new mowing-machine home. If he believes in our old-fashioned notions, why doesn't he

stick to the scythe and sickle? If you will go behind his barn, you will see a fine, newly painted threshing-machine, ready for use. Doesn't Uncle John recollect when he and I were young men, and used our flails side by side? How is it he has abandoned that, and resorted to this 'new-fangled' notion of a threshing machine? The simple reason, as I take it, is, that these new inventions will do his work better.

"Mr. Chairman," said the speaker, assuming an earnest tone, "I trust the day has gone by when it is considered that any old, tumble-down building is good enough for our children to receive their schooling in. We all take the newest and best inventions to our farms and workshops; we tear down our old houses and build new ones; we erect our handsome church; but here the school-house stands—an eyesore in the sight of every intelligent man. Every thing is progressing excepting our educational interests. Let us pull this miserable old building down, and put up one that we shall look upon with an honest pride, and in which we shall feel that our children are not being tortured as they learn their lessons."

"Another thing," shouted Uncle John, springing to his feet; "I don't like what they larn now-a-days. My oldest gal come home, t'other day, with a grammar; and the fust thing I heerd her saying, was: 'I might, have, can, should, would, will love,' and some other like nonsense. I axed her what she meant, and she said that was the lesson she was given to larn. I told her to take that book back agin, and never touch a grammar agin. She'd never got it, if her mother hadn't bo't it without axing me. When I went to school, we larnt readin', 'ritin', and 'rithmetic (I can't forget them words, for every one begins with r), and spelling; but now-a-days, they've got joggerphy, grammar, algebra, and jommertry. I don't believe Ginerall Jackson ever heard of sich things when he went to school."

At this point the secretary whispered to the chairman, and the latter gently reminded the speaker that he was not confining himself to the question: whereupon Uncle John dropped into his seat highly

offended, and resolved to say no more that evening

Mr. Brown arose:

"I see that Mr. Brandon is in the room. I am sure we shall all be glad to hear from him."

There was a general turning of heads toward the door, where the gentleman alluded to was standing. He was their representative in Congress,—a fine, scholarly gentleman, who was universally respected, as much by his political opponents as by his supporters. He had arrived by the evening stage, and it was not known that he was present until Mr. Brown announced the fact. At that very moment, the opposition were preparing for a most determined argument against the other party; but they now instantly shrank back, as the stars hide themselves before the greater light of the sun. One thing in favor of what Mr. Brandon might say, was, that the majority of the opposition were his political friends. It was manifest that whatever he might utter, would be listened to with respectful attention by both sides.

"My friends," said he, as he walked forward, "I have come all the way from Washington to attend this meeting. I am glad that it has been called, but regret that a single person should oppose this measure. I think the cause of the opposition arises solely from misconception. Laying aside the intrinsic necessity of a new school-building, let me appeal to your selfishness. On my way here, I made the acquaintance of a merchant, who was looking for some village in which to erect himself a home, away from the bustle and turmoil of the city. He had his eye upon this place, and inquired regarding our school-house. Truth compelled me to reply unfavorably; and he added, that he should not settle in a community where the people were so blind to their interests. I took the liberty, however, of stating that we would soon erect a new school-house, which, like our church, would be an ornament to the place; and I believe, after all, we shall have him in our midst.

"Don't hesitate a moment, my friends. Through the towns and villages which I have passed on my way home, I have seen tasteful and commodious school-buildings,

filled with happy and joyous children. And in all such places you will find real estate worth owning. If Ben Franklin and Andrew Jackson had as poor a means of education as we have, it is no reason why we should hold back. Uncle John has forgotten that these two great personages had an advantage far above any of us. God gave them a quality of *brains* which we do not possess. To that fact, and not to any other, is to be ascribed their greatness.

"We may leave our children wealth, but they may lose it and become paupers. We may rather leave them a good, sound education, of which they can never be robbed, and which will be of far greater value to them than gold or lands. Let us not stop, then, at any means which can procure this inestimable blessing."

It was wonderful what a revolution this little speech had made! The first who gave evidence of conversion was Samuel T. Jones, Esq., who remarked in an audible

voice to the secretary: "I'll be hanged if I don't believe every word of that. I go for the new school-house."

Mr. Brown and his friends had too much good sense to add any thing to the remarks of Mr. Brandon. They felt sure the work was completed. The chairman called for further remarks, and waited for several minutes. There were none offered. Finally, he asked what should be the price of the proposed building. Mr. Brandon moved that it be five thousand dollars. Several winced at this, but there was no counter-motion made, and when it was put, the resounding "*ayes!*" fairly made the windows rattle. The only dissenting voice was a weak squeak, the owner of which did his best to conceal his identity, by bobbing his head downward and blowing his nose with remarkable vigor.

And so the new school-house was erected; and to-day, that, and the beautiful white church, are the ornament and pride of the village.

THE OLD AND THE NEW IN EDUCATION.

II.

THE PRINCIPLES OF OBJECT TEACHING APPLIED TO READING.

IN a former article, it was briefly stated that the fundamental principle of what is usually termed "object" teaching, is, that "ideas should be presented to the mind before *words*—that the *thing signified* should be apprehended by the mind before the arbitrary *sign* is taught;" and we referred to the system which is growing up under the name of object teaching, as one of the "new things in education," whose importance demands for it an examination by every teacher. The more fully we carry out the principle here stated, in the work of primary education, the more nearly shall we attain to the true theory of mental development; and now the great problem to be solved by educators, is, how to apply the principle to the various branches of study taught in our schools. It is important, however, in teaching a pupil the rudiments of any

branch of study, not only that the *ideas* which are to constitute the pupil's knowledge of it should precede the words or signs which represent them, but that these ideas should be presented in their natural order; so that the system devolves upon the teacher the double necessity of understanding both the principle and the proper *order* of its application. But here the objector may ask: "How is the pupil to acquire *ideas* upon any subject, unless it be through the medium of *words*? Do not the words give the ideas, rather than the ideas suggest the words?" We reply by asking a question in return. Can *words* give him any ideas, unless the words are first understood; and is it not the known *ideas* only, which words convey, that suggest or impart other ideas to the pupil? And, further, is it not, primarily, *objects*, and their qualities, rather than words,

which make impressions upon us, and convey ideas to the mind through the medium of the senses?

But, setting aside this metaphysical disquisition, let us be as practical as possible; and, keeping in view our postulate of "ideas before words," see whither it will lead us. Will it guide us in developing the only true and natural system of teaching Reading, and Spelling, and Arithmetic, and Geography, and English Grammar, and all the Natural Sciences which comprise so large a portion of the sum-total of human knowledge? We think it will—in time; but we are far from assuming that any one has yet worked out the problem by developing the *best* methods in a single department of instruction. This will doubtless be the work of many minds, but all guided by the same principle. To this end we purpose, in the present article, to contribute a few suggestions upon the subject of *Reading*.

How can the elements of Reading—the first steps—be taught upon the principle of "ideas before words?" Is it by the *a b c* method? But the letters of the alphabet have, primarily, no meaning to the child. Can we then begin with the "elementary sounds" of these same meaningless letters? This is a still further remove from our assumed principle. May we not, then, begin with *words*—the "word-method"—and thus, in an ingenious but somewhat artificial manner, "build up" the language out of the little words which enter so largely into its composition? Thus, from *an*, we easily form *and*, then *hand*; also, *can*, *fan*, *pan*, *ran*, &c., &c. But here, also, we have entirely overlooked our guiding principle, and have, therefore, at a loss of time and labor, only incumbered the mind with the signs, without their corresponding ideas. All these might, with propriety, be classed as the "unproductive" methods of instruction.

Let us now try Nature's method—the method which the child adopts intuitively—and see if it is not in accordance with the fundamental principle which we have assumed. The child acquires its first ideas through the medium of the senses, long before it has words, or other signs than those of the emotions, to express them.

A thousand familiar objects, at a very early period, daguerreotype their images or ideas in its mind, and these ideas it then rapidly learns to associate with the words which it now feels the want of, and with which it is furnished, for intercommunication with other minds. It sees an animal, for example, and hears its cry, by which it acquires an idea of the form of the one, and the tone of the other; and then how easy to learn the words which represent them! And this is Nature's method, by which the child progresses so rapidly,—first ideas, and then words.

And may not the same principle be continued when the child enters upon its elementary course of reading? Let its attention be called to a *dog*, for example, or the picture of a dog, the *name* of which it already knows; and then let the *word* dog be shown and named to the child, as the word-picture of the object. This word, which has now a meaning, it readily calls at sight; just as it calls the names of a thousand other familiar objects. After numerous words have been learned in this way, the *letters* which compose them may be learned; for now they have a significance, as the parts which are essential to the formation of the whole. Thus the *use* of the letters is first made evident to the child, after which their *names* are learned, just as the names of other objects are learned. The elementary sounds of the letters may be learned at a later period; not for the purpose of *learning how to read*, but for the purpose of training the ear and the organs of speech. This is, briefly, the true *object* method of teaching the rudiments of reading.

We cannot enter into further details of this part of the subject here; but must content ourselves with a glance at the general subject of reading in school. To carry out the principles of the object system, the best illustrations of familiar objects should be freely introduced in the primary reading-books, and the lessons should be adapted to interest the pupil in the subjects thus pictured to him, by the use of all the varieties of a good but familiar conversational style. There is a reason in this method. The child is, by nature, a *conversational* being; and, what

is more, it uses the proper intonations, the inflections, the cadences, the pauses, and the emphasis of language, with the skill of a master; for it has had Nature for a teacher. Hence the importance, in passing from the freedom of Nature to the restraints of the school-room, of requiring the pupil to use the proper intonations, inflections, &c., especially at the very beginning of his course in reading. They are always used aright by the child in familiar conversation: they constitute the rhetoric of his childish prattle: and if he can be made to transfer the same, in all their naturalness and correctness, to *book* language, he can not fail of being a good reader. He is already a good *talker*, in all the essentials of correct rhetoric. But to make the change from talking to reading—so that the naturalness, the simplicity, and the truthfulness of the former shall not be lost in the cold formalism of merely calling *words*, without ideas—will require all the skill of the ablest teacher, even when the method of instruction is the correct one. What, then, must we think of those reading-books, and those methods of teaching, which have no adaptation to the leading characteristics in the child's nature?

We have been speaking, thus far, of the elements, or first steps, and the *manner* of reading. But it is the *matter* of the reading—what we are to learn from it—that is entitled to more consideration; for this is, indeed, *all* that makes the *manner* of any importance. And yet, from the almost exclusive attention that is given in our schools to the *manner* of reading, to the great neglect of all other kinds of cultivation that may be connected with the reading exercises, it would seem that teachers have either lost sight of the ultimate object of reading, or that they think pupils, while in school, should not progress beyond the rudimentary matter of learning *how* to read. We can not coincide with such views; but think that the great amount of time devoted to reading in our schools should be productive of educational results beyond the mere calling of words, however artistically this may be done.

This suggests to us another of the "new things" in popular education that have arisen within a few years. We refer to

the attempt to introduce a much wider range of *subjects* in our common-schools than heretofore, without additional *studies*, with the view of laying there the foundation, at least, of the most practical education.

This has already become a subject of so much consideration with teachers, and all friends of popular education, not only by reason of the prominence which has been given to it in a series of Readers recently published, and the favor with which they have been received, but by its vast educational importance also, that we can no longer ignore its claims to attention. Is it of any importance that the youth of our country should early be familiarized with at least the *elements* of those branches which make up the sum-total of useful, scientific knowledge? Is it at all desirable that they should know *any thing* of the boundless forms and properties of the vegetation which covers the earth—of the rocks and the soils—of the beasts, birds, fishes, and insects, useful or injurious to man—of man himself, as subject to the laws of health and disease—and of such practical and all-pervading philosophy of matter and of mind as governs our everyday actions? Is it not a matter of vast educational importance that we should consider whether our youth—all of them—can be interested and instructed in these things or not? If it can be done, let us know how, and where, and when, and a vast educational problem will be solved.

It was once thought that these are subjects beyond the attainments of children; but what has been done to popularize science within the past twenty years, and divest it of its forbidding technicalities, has shown that these are all very common things, of every-day observation, and full of interest to the young, when properly presented to them. *How* to present them, and so as to reach *all*, is the only question. Can it be done in our common or public schools, by the use of the ordinary text-books, and by regular recitations therefrom? This is so manifestly impossible, that it is not even attempted anywhere. Some authors have made the attempt to attain the desired end through the medium of a series of reading-books. Yet this plan

is not altogether a new one, except in our own country, for the same thing has been attempted in the reading-books used by authority in the Prussian and German schools; in the National or Irish series, now used by authority in the public schools of Canada; and in several series, published or begun, in England and Scotland, within a few years past. We say nothing, here, of the comparative success which has attended these several efforts to meet the wants of this progressive age: it

is sufficient, now, to present the *principle* to the reader, and ask him to give it his attention. It is one of the "new" things in the great subject of Popular Education that cannot be ignored. It commends itself most forcibly to the consideration of those whose children are limited to the common or public school for the means of education, and to *all*—teachers and school-officers—who are the chosen guardians of the educational interests of *the masses*.

BENJAMIN ABBOT AND WARREN COLBURN.

AMONG the names of honor on the catalogue of American teachers, none, perhaps, stands higher than that of Benjamin Abbot, for fifty years the Preceptor of Phillips Exeter Academy. He was a gentleman, in the best sense of the word, a far better sense than the common conventional one. "Manners and morals meant the same thing to him in his life, as well as in his Latin lexicon." He was a scholar—foremost among the scholars of his day, as he was first among its teachers. Not content with the laurels won at Harvard, he continued a student to the last of life. "He knew"—to quote again from the eulogium of one of his pupils—"that, among regal minds, progress is the supreme law; and he was not content to sit by the roadside, a wondering spectator, while the grand procession moved on. He did not, like some men, merely mark time, but he fell into line and marched." He was a student of human nature as well as of books, and he knew the *human nature of boys* as few men have known it. He knew, too, how to govern. "If of the various attributes of a teacher he had any one in pre-eminence, it was the attribute of imperial authority,—the *auctoritas* of Cicero."

Dr. Abbot has often been compared to Dr. Arnold. Both as a man and as a teacher, he had many characteristics which marked that most eminent of modern schoolmasters. It is said, by the by, that an "old boy" of Rugby, on visiting Exeter, some years ago, was struck with the strong

points of resemblance between the two schools.

When Dr. Abbot resigned his position in 1838, at the expiration of half a century of service, there was a grand gathering at Exeter of his old pupils. More than two thousand had graduated from the Academy during his preceptorate, and now they came thronging back to do their old instructor reverence. "They came from the senate-chamber, the cabinet, the courtroom, the gubernatorial chair, the hall of the university, the pulpit, the fields of literature, and the laboratory of science; and they held a high festival of the heart.... Daniel Webster presided on the occasion, assisted by Edward Everett—the Demosthenes and the Cicero of the American forum." Eloquent speeches were made by them, and by many others whose names are among the most honored in our history; and after the dinner, Mr. Webster, in behalf of the pupils present and absent, presented to the venerable teacher a massive silver vase, as a token of their respect and reverence.

No other school in the country could call together, on a festive occasion, so brilliant a company, and claim them all as her foster-children. And the roll of the assistant teachers of Dr. Abbot, during the half century, is no less remarkable. Among the number were Daniel Dana, D. D., who for a time was President of Dartmouth College; Nathan Lord, who has recently resigned the same honorable position;

President Walker and Prof. Bowen, of Harvard; Judge Thatcher, Judge Emery, Judge Ware, Nathan Hale, senior editor of the Boston *Advertiser*, Joseph S. Buckminster, Alexander H. Everett, and Henry Ware, Jr.

But we are forgetting what we took our pen to write. It was not a sketch of this eminent instructor that we were going to give you, but a single fact in regard to his methods of teaching, which we learned, not long ago, through one of his pupils, and which may never have appeared in print. Although the Academy was considered strictly a classical school, every pupil was required to study that admirable little manual, which has done more to give the youth of this country a practical education than any other text-book—*Warren Colburn's First Lessons in Numbers*. The older students often ridiculed the idea of using such an unpretending primary book in classes of their grade, but they soon found that to master it completely was no mere child's play. The main use which Dr. Abbot made of it was not so much to teach his pupils arithmetic, as to train them to think clearly and reason correctly. In his view, it was not so much "First Lessons in Numbers" as First Lessons in Reasoning. And who can tell how much the great thinkers who received their early training in Phillips Exeter Academy,—great jurists, great orators, great statesmen, who remembered their old master with such loving, grateful reverence,—may have owed to the drill which they had in that little book of Warren Colburn's?

We are very sure that Dr. Abbot did not see in the *First Lessons* the "abrupt transitions" which certain critics of our day have fancied that they detected there. It is safe to say that he, like every teacher capable of comprehending the plan of the book, saw no transitions more abrupt than the author meant to make them for the purposes of mental development and discipline. He did *not* mean to make the path of the child like the inclined planes of a railroad grade, up which he might go without knowing or suspecting that he was not traveling on a level; but rather, by an admirably arranged system of progressive exercises, to give him the strength which should enable

him, now and then, to climb a hill or leap a ditch in his pathway. Those who would cut down the hill and fill up or bridge over the ditch, do not understand the book, do not understand their work as teachers, have not even learned the meaning of the word *education*. A truly "progressive" text-book, in any science, is one which steadily increases not merely the *knowledge* of the pupil, but his *wisdom*. It aims not so much to burden his memory with facts and formulas, which, like the Old Man of the Sea, in the Oriental tale, will compel him to bear them on his back and be their helpless slave; but to cultivate and strengthen his reasoning powers, that he may make facts and formulas his "nimble and airy servitors," ready, like Ariel, to do his bidding,

"be 't to fly,
To swim, to dive into the fire, to ride
On the curled clouds."

In this best sense of the word, Colburn's *First Lessons* is "progressive;" the "abrupt transitions" are an essential part of the plan; and to attempt to "improve" upon the plan in that respect, would inevitably be to *spoil* it.—*Mass. Teacher*.

WITTY MEN.—Without the subordinate good qualities of natural good sense, good-nature, and discretion, a man of wit and learning would be painful to the generality of mankind, instead of being pleasing. Witty men are apt to imagine they are agreeable as such, and by that means grow the worst companions imaginable. They deride the absent, or rally the present, in a wrong manner; not knowing that if you pinch or tickle a man till he is uneasy in his seat, or ungracefully distinguished from the rest of the company, you equally hurt him.—*Addison*.

The massive gates of circumstance
Are turned upon the smallest hinge,
And thus some seeming pettiest chance
Oft gives our life its after tinge.

The trifles of our daily lives,
The common thing scarce worth recall,
Whereof no visible trace survives—
These are the mainsprings, after all.

HISTORY OF SCHOOLS IN NEW YORK CITY.

THE FIRST SCHOOL AND FIRST TEACHER.

SEVEN generations have passed since the *First School* was opened in New Amsterdam. This was an elementary parochial school under the management of the deacons of the Dutch Church. At that period (1633) the infant city of New York extended from the Battery northward only to the present location of Wall-street, and contained a population of but four hundred persons.

THE FIRST TEACHER

was Adam Roelandsen, who came from Holland in company with Wouter Van Twiller, to fill the triple office of teacher, chorister, and beadle. He came from the land where the pilgrims found their first home on escaping from the religious persecutions in England. While sojourning there they learned to prize education and good schools as the noblest allies of liberty. About a dozen years prior to the advent of the first schoolmaster on the island of Manhattan, the Pilgrims had borne with them across the Atlantic the seeds of public education, which they subsequently planted in the New England colonies, side by side with the Church.

THE FIRST SCHOOL-HOUSE.

At this early period there were no school-houses in New Amsterdam; all the schools were of a private character. About ten years after the first school was opened, those early Knickerbockers began to agitate the subject of erecting a building for its accommodation. It took them twenty years to agree upon a suitable site, collect the necessary means, and erect their *First School-house*, which was completed about 1663. While arrangements for building this school-house were in progress, in 1659, the first "Latin Schoolmaster" arrived from Holland.

THE FIRST ENGLISH SCHOOL.

In 1687, the first English Grammar-school was commenced in New York. It subsequently received fifty pounds a year from the English colonial government for

the support of its teacher. In addition, forty pounds were granted to this institution for the purpose of establishing free scholarships. In 1702 this school was established on the King's Farm, and thus became the germ of King's College. During this period the Island of Manhattan was in the possession of the English, and the name of the city had been changed from New Amsterdam to New York. Its population was about five thousand.

The citizens of this young metropolis were very desirous of securing a person who was well qualified to fill the position of teacher in their first English Grammar-school, and accordingly they wrote to the Bishop of London, requesting him to send them a "master, as there was not any person within the city, proper and duly qualified to take upon himself the office of schoolmaster in said city, with whose convenience it would be agreeable."

COLUMBIA COLLEGE.

In 1732 a "Free-school for teaching the Latin and Greek and practical branches of mathematics" was incorporated by law. In 1754 a royal charter was granted for establishing an English college, which was called King's College. Two years later an edifice was erected for its use, on grounds granted for that purpose by the corporation of Trinity Church. A few years subsequently, a grammar-school and a medical department were added. This institution was in a flourishing condition at the beginning of the American Revolution; but the war suddenly suspended its operations, and the buildings were occupied for military purposes. After the Revolution this college was reopened and its name changed to Columbia College, which it still bears.

As the population of the city increased, new schools were occasionally opened; some for private instruction, at expensive rates of tuition; others, under the management of the different religious denominations, and known as charity schools, were chiefly designed for the children of the poor families belonging to their respective churches.

Prior to 1800 no provision had been made for public schools, and the means of education were entirely beyond the reach of the great body of the citizens.

Some time during 1795 several benevolent ladies, of the Society of Friends, formed an association for the purpose of aiding poor women who were not of the order of Quakers. In a few years they observed that there was a large and increasing class of poor children who were entirely without the means of education, even at the charity schools of the several churches. Accordingly, in 1802, they opened a school for poor girls, children of that class of women for whom their association provided employment and the means of support. Afterwards they admitted both girls and boys into their schools; but they finally excluded all boys from them, admitting girls only. These schools were taught by these benevolent ladies in person, taking the duty week by week, in turn.

The success of the schools for girls suggested a plan for opening similar schools for boys. On the 19th of February, 1805, twelve philanthropic gentlemen met for the purpose of considering this subject. The result of this meeting was the presentation of a memorial to the Legislature of the State of New York, which was signed by about one hundred prominent citizens, asking for a charter, and such pecuniary aid as would enable them to establish free schools.

On the 9th of April, 1805, the Legislature of New York passed "An act to incorporate the society instituted in the city of New York, for the establishment of a free-school, for the education of poor children, who do not belong to, or are not provided for, by any religious society." This act provided, that "any person who should contribute to the society the sum of eight dollars should be a member thereof; and that any person who should contribute the sum of twenty-five dollars should be a member, and be further entitled, during the life of such contributor, to send one child to be educated at any school under the care of the society; and whoever should contribute the sum of forty dollars, should be a member, and be entitled to send two children, etc."

This act also provided that the society should be managed by thirteen trustees, to be elected on the first Monday in May in every year, who should be members of the said corporation and actual residents of the city of New York. The first Board of Trustees was elected on the tenth day of May, 1805, and composed of the following persons, with whom the plan of the society originated:

DE WITT CLINTON, *President.*

JOHN MURRAY, JR., *Vice-President.*

LEONARD BLEECKER, *Treasurer.*

BENJAMIN D. PERKINS, *Secretary.*

Gilbert Aspinwall, Thomas Eddy, Thomas Franklin, Matthew Franklin, Adrian Hegeman, William Johnson, Samuel Miller, Benjamin G. Minturn, and Henry Ten Brook.

THE FIRST PUBLIC SCHOOL.

This association having now assumed a responsible shape, the trustees began to appeal to the public for the necessary means to carry forward their noble enterprise. Notwithstanding great exertions were made in soliciting subscriptions, nearly twelve months elapsed before they had collected a sum sufficient to warrant them in making the requisite engagements for opening a school.

About this time intelligence reached this country concerning the mode of teaching elementary classes, which had then just been introduced into a school of about one thousand children in London, under the superintendence of Joseph Lancaster. "Economy in expense, and facility and expedition in communicating instruction," were the characteristic distinctions claimed for this method of instruction.

This plan of teaching comprehended reading, writing, and arithmetic. A school was divided into classes of ten or fifteen pupils each, who were placed under the care of a monitor, who was a pupil in a class of a higher grade. Thus the children were to be made the instruments of their own instruction. One of the Board of Trustees had visited Lancaster's school in London, and was very desirous of adopting the same system in the schools of this society in New York. At length a teacher was found, who appeared to be qualified for the undertaking, and a small apartment

was secured in Bancker-street (now Madison), near Pearl-street, and the first school under the charge of this society was opened on the 14th of May, 1806. In a few days this school contained forty-two pupils. This was the first *Lancasterian school established in America*.

About this time Col. Henry Rutgers presented two lots of ground in Henry-street, for the purpose of erecting thereon a school-house to meet the wants of the poor in that part of the city. These lots were valued, at \$2,500. In addition, the citizens contributed cloth, stockings, shoes, and hats, to make the children who attended the school comfortable during the severe cold weather.

During the winter of 1807, the trustees applied to the Legislature for aid, and received an appropriation of \$4,000 toward building a school-house, and \$1,000 to be paid annually toward defraying the expenses of the school. About the same time the trustees applied to the corporation of the city for assistance in their noble work, and the use of a building on the northwest corner of the City Hall Park, adjoining the Almshouse, was granted them as a temporary location, together with \$500 for putting it in repair, on condition that the society would admit into the school fifty of the children of the Almshouse. To this place the school in Bancker-street was removed on the 28th of April, 1807, and before the close of that year it had one hundred and fifty pupils in attendance.

"THE FREE SCHOOL SOCIETY OF NEW YORK."

In April, 1808, the Legislature amended the charter of this institution, and changed its name to that of "The Free School Society of New York." During the autumn of this year the city government presented to the society the grounds occupied by the old arsenal in Chatham-street, on condition of their educating gratuitously the children of the Almshouse. Fifteen hundred dollars were also appropriated to aid in preparing a new building on this site for the reception of the school.

THE FIRST FREE-SCHOOL BUILDING.

The first school-building of the Free School Society was publicly opened with

appropriate exercises on the 11th day of December, 1809. The occasion was one of great interest, as the dedication of a building to the gratuitous instruction of five hundred children, under the superintendence of a single teacher,* was a spectacle which had never before been witnessed on the American continent. The president of the Free School Society—De Witt Clinton—in his address on this occasion, described the origin and progress of the association, and portrayed the great benefits which might justly be expected to flow from the diffusion of knowledge among the great mass of the people.

The corner-stone of the second school-house was laid by the donor of the soil, Col. Rutgers, on the 11th of November, 1810. An additional appropriation was secured from the legislature, besides several liberal donations from individuals to aid in erecting the house. This school was opened, with John Missing for principal, on the 13th of November, 1811, as School No. 2, which number it now bears in the present list of grammar-schools of New York. The two free-schools thus opened accommodated about eight hundred children in attendance; about four hundred were admitted, and the same number discharged, each year.

PLAN FOR RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION.

The Board of Trustees of the Free School Society comprised those who represented almost every religious denomination; but in the schools under their care they studiously avoided the inculcation of the peculiar tenets of any religious society. From the commencement of their schools they had directed that the Holy Scriptures should be read daily in them. To satisfy the wishes of all, it was determined that the secular instruction should be suspended on the afternoon of every Tuesday, and that this time should be devoted to the religious instruction of the children. In order to carry out this plan, an association of about fifty ladies, belonging to the different religious denominations in the city, volunteered their services, and met at the schools to examine the children in their

* William Smith was the first principal of School No. 1, and held that position in 1814.

different catechisms. The parents or guardians designated the denomination in whose tenets they wished their children to be educated. Sunday monitors were also appointed to conduct the children to places of public worship.

THE COMMON-SCHOOL FUND.

In 1815 the Common-school Fund of the State of New York was divided, and the Free School Society received \$3,700 as its first annual installment. In 1818 a third school was opened in Greenwich village, at the corner of Hudson and Amos streets; but it was soon afterward removed to the new house, built on the lots given for this purpose by the Trinity Church corporation, on the corner of Hudson and Grove streets.

This school was called No. 3. The house stood where the new Grammar School No. 3 now stands.

ADDITIONAL SCHOOLS.

In 1819 and 1820 the fourth and fifth schools were opened. In 1824 the sixth school was started. The six schools now contained an aggregate of four thousand three hundred and eighty-four children. Thus, in the term of eighteen years, the free-schools had increased from the humble school of forty-two pupils, more than a hundred-fold. Important changes took place in the school system of New York soon after this period, an account of which we must defer for another article.

(To be continued.)

LIFE AND DEATH.

EVERY thing has its use; life to teach us the contempt of death, and death the contempt of life.

Death has two aspects: dreary and sorrowful to those of prosperous, mild, and almost genial to those of adverse fortune. Her countenance is old to the young, and youthful to the aged: to the former her voice is importunate, her gait terrific; the latter she approaches like a bedside friend, and calls in a whisper that invites to rest.

If life is a present which any one, foreknowing its contents, would have willingly declined, does it not follow that any one would as willingly give it up, having well tried what they are? I speak of the reasonable, the firm, the virtuous; not of those who, like bad governors, are afraid of laying down the powers and privileges they have been proved unworthy of holding.

Were it certain that the longer we live the wiser we become and the happier, then indeed a long life would be desirable: but since, on the contrary, our mental strength decays and our enjoyments of every kind not only sink and cease, but diseases and

sorrows come in place of them; if any wish is rational, it is surely the wish that we should go away unshaken by years, undepressed by griefs, and undespoiled of our better faculties. Life and death appear more certainly ours than whatsoever else: and yet hardly can that be called ours which comes without our knowledge, or goes without it; or that which can not be put aside if we would, and indeed can anticipate but little.

There are few who can regulate life to any extent; none who can order the things it shall receive or exclude. What value should be placed upon it then by the prudent man, when duty or necessity calls him away? or what reluctance should he feel on passing into a state where, at least, he must be conscious of fewer checks and inabilities? Such, my reader, as the brave commander, when from the secret and dark passages of some fortress, wherein implacable enemies besieged him, having performed all his duties and exhausted all his munition, he issues at a distance into open day.

"DR. LEWIS ADOLFUS"—AN ENGLISH SCHOOLMASTER, AND
HIS OPERATIONS IN AMERICA.

SOME three years ago, the subject of this sketch arrived in Cincinnati from Europe—from England's capital—where he was a private tutor in Lord John Russell's family, as he represented to the many influential citizens into whose favor he managed to ingratiate himself. Favored with a great address and fine education, Dr. Adolfus managed, in the course of a short time, to gain the confidence of many. He established a school for boys at College Hill, where he soon had a large number of pupils,—sons of some of the wealthiest families of the city and vicinity. The doctor's business flourished, apparently, for he soon commenced living in elegant style—dressed in broadcloth and fine linen, kept up a good table, drove fast horses, and sported a fine carriage.

Many people wondered how he could afford all this, having no means of support, apparently, save his school; but the truth is at last developed, and the doctor stood revealed in his true character of forger, swindler, and rascal in general. The first transaction of a dishonest character in which we hear of his being engaged, was in negotiating the sale of bills of foreign exchange on parties in London. He disposed of bills of this kind to the amount of between £1,700 to £2,000, to parties in Cincinnati, which, of course, came back protested; and the worthy doctor stood convicted before the parties whom he had thus swindled, of obtaining money under false pretenses. He managed, however, to compromise this matter, having enjoyed the use of the money—\$8,000 to \$10,000—in the mean while, together with the interest and premium, which was clear gain.

The excitement produced in business circles by this affair having blown over, the doctor commenced operations again. He managed to borrow money from parties who were entirely unsuspecting of his true character; he made purchases for which he never paid, swindled employees and servants out of their wages, and, in fact, carried out in the most complete manner a

scheme of deliberate and systematic rascality. We hear of an instance of his borrowing \$2,000 from a widow lady residing at College Hill, giving her as security a chattel mortgage on property already completely covered with mortgages.

By these various means he managed to victimize some fifty different persons, in amounts large and small, all the time covering his real character with an able duplicity at which we can not but wonder. The last and heaviest transaction in which we find the doctor engaged, was in forging the name of Henry Mack & Bros., on notes to the amount of between \$4,000 and \$5,000, all of which he disposed of without exciting any suspicion. Some of these notes were for amounts as high as \$600. This was done in the latter part of 1863, and the fact of the forgery was not discovered until lately. Success in villainy seems to have blinded the doctor to any danger of detection, for his last operation was conducted in the boldest manner imaginable.

Hearing, however, of the discovery of the forgery, he made preparations to leave; and on or about the first of the past month, drove into town and left his horses and carriage at William Wood's stable as usual, pretending that he was going to return the same night. He had with him his wife and child, with whom he immediately took passage on the night-express for New York, and upon his arrival at that place, took passage on a steamer to Liverpool, where he has probably arrived by this time, with a considerable sum of money, the proceeds of his rascalities in Cincinnati.

As an instance of the boldness with which he conducted himself, we are informed that up to the very day of his departure he continued his dishonest operations. The night before he started he made a purchase of furs, silver-ware, and other valuable articles, which could be conveniently carried away, ordering the bill to be sent to his house, as usual.

ENCROACHMENTS OF THE SEA.

A SUBJECT which has attracted wide discussion among scientific men, is forced directly upon the attention of visitors to Cape May; namely, the rapid wearing away and subsidence of the shores, and the advance of the tide-waters on the land. Along the entire extent of the New Jersey coast, this phenomenon is observable. At the mouth of Dennis creek, and for many miles along the Delaware bay shore, the marsh is washed away, according to the reports of local surveyors, on an average of about one rod in two years; and from early maps, this would appear to have been going on at this rate ever since the first settlement of the country. Thus an island which is laid down on a map of 1694 as containing three hundred acres, now shows at low-water only half an acre, and at high-water is entirely covered.

PROGRESS OF THE ENCROACHMENT.

On the west side of Cape May, at a point where the shore is most boldly outlined, the solid gravel bank, from twelve to eighteen feet high, wears away about one foot a year; the foundations of the houses built at the first settlement, as early as 1691, were long since undermined, and the waters of the bay now cover the place where they once stood.

At this cape, the most southerly point of the New Jersey coast, the encroachment of the tides is equally rapid, a full mile having been washed away since the Revolution. During that period, according to the report of the State Geological Survey, a militia artillery company had its practising ground here. Their gun was placed near a house which stood just aside of the present shore line, and their target was set up three-quarters of a mile east. This last point was at the outer edge of the cultivated ground, between which and the water's edge there were sand-hills or beaches a quarter of a mile in extent. The whole of this is now gone; and one of the hotels has twice been moved inland, on account of the constant advance of the tide.

INSTANCES OF OVERFLOW.

Old observers upon the Atlantic and bay shores, all agree as to the gradual advance of the ocean upon the uplands. Narrow fringes of wood, which formerly skirted the marshes, have been killed by the salt water; and numerous islands—spaces of land found surrounded by salt marsh—which, within the memory of men now living, have been cultivated, and others which were in woods, have been entirely lost in the advancing marsh, and their location is only to be known by the shallowness of the mud which covers them. In all the salt marshes on this shore, stumps of trees, of the common species of the country, are found with the roots still fast in the solid ground at the bottom of the marsh, and this at depths far below low-water mark. Similar submerged forests, it may be incidentally remarked, are observed on the Massachusetts and other coasts.

THE RATE OF SUBSIDENCE.

The period during which this subsidence has been in progress, can not be estimated with any degree of accuracy. From the best evidence that can be gathered, it would seem to be certain that two feet in a hundred years is not above the rate at which the shore is now sinking.

COAST ELEVATION AND DEPRESSION ELSEWHERE.

These changes on the New Jersey coast do not appear to be confined to the more southern shore. The same thing has been observed in the salt marshes on the Raritan, and at the mouths of the Hackensack and Passaic rivers. Nor are these changes by any means uncommon on other shores. Mr. Lyell, in his work on the Principles of Geology, says: "Recent observations have disclosed to us the wonderful fact, that not only the west coast of South America, but also other large areas, some of them seven thousand miles in circumference, such as Scandinavia, and certain archipelagoes in the Pacific, are slowly and insensibly ris-

ing; while other regions, such as Greenland, and parts of the Pacific and Indian Oceans, in which atolls or circular coral islands abound, are as gradually sinking." Professor Hitchcock, in his "Report on the Geology of Massachusetts," mentions the same phenomena as exhibited there. Mr. Lyell, in his "First Visit to America," speaking of the coast of Georgia, says: "I even suspect that this coast is now sinking down at a slow and insensible rate, for the sea is encroaching and gaining at many points on the fresh-water marshes." Bartram, the botanist, writing in 1792, testified that along the coasts of Carolina, Georgia, and Florida, the tides encroach upon marshes which were once high land, covered with forests.

EVIDENCES OF FORMER SHORE DEPRESSION.

From the deposits of shells of recent species which are now frequently found above the present high-tide mark, it is inferred that at a period not very remote, these New Jersey shores were much lower than at present. This inference is corroborated by the appearance of the ridges of drift-sand near Cape May, which seem to have been formed long since by gradual recessions of the water, and are now covered by heavy growths of black-oak timber. These ridges, however, are now wearing away by the advance of the tides; and the indications would thus seem to be, that while the ground was formerly several feet lower than it now is, it has since been elevated to a height several feet above its present altitude, and that it is at this time, and has been for many years past, slowly but gradually sinking.

A THEORY UPON THE SUBJECT.

The New Jersey State Geologist, in remarking upon this subject, has broached the theory, that possibly the peculiarities of the New Jersey coast are caused by this gradual elevation and subsequent depression. Along the whole extent, almost, of New Jersey, the main-land is separated from the ocean by a strip of salt marsh, in some places several miles wide; on the outer edge of this marsh, next the sea, is a row of long, narrow, sand islands, or beaches. In many places where the waves

wash against the head-bank, the material is constantly wearing away, and depositing as a sand-bar or shoal, at some distance from the shore and parallel to it, leaving comparatively deep water contiguous to the land. The same configuration is among the peculiarities of the shores of Norway and Sweden. "If we suppose this to have occurred," says Professor Cook, "during the former depression of the land, a series of shoals would have formed parallel to the coast. When a rising of the land took place, these shoals would be raised above the surface of the water, and become the basis of the present beaches; shrubs and trees would soon grow on them, to protect their surface and catch the sand which would drift up from the strand. The lower ground back would finally be elevated above the water, and would be covered by vegetation, shrubs, and trees, until a subsequent depression of the surface should again carry them below the tide-level, when they would become salt marshes, filling up with sea deposits as the advancing tides would bring them in, and thus keeping their surface at high-water mark."

INTERROGATING THE FUTURE.

These phenomena, which an inspection of this coast brings to our attention, are certainly interesting matter of study for scientific men, and we cannot any of us contemplate them without desiring to interrogate the future as to the probable results of the constant advances which the sea is making. Will hoar Neptune yet lift his trident, and float in his royal barge, where now it is all "dry land?" Will he yet assert his sway over the broad Newark meadows, or absorb into his domain the marshes on the shore of Long Island, or swallow up the seaside resorts where the multitude assembles, pleasure-seeking,

"In summer, when the days are long?"

These are inquiries, which, in view of what has gone before, may well engage our thought; questions of infinitely less moment have often, before now, set the schools by the ears, and given tomes of learned disquisition to our libraries. Those who would have these queries answered

according to existing light and knowledge, may profitably peruse the thirtieth chapter of Lyell's "Principles of Geology," before mentioned.

However, Nature accomplishes many of her great changes very slowly, compared with the life of man. Though the New Jersey beaches, and Long Branch, and Atlantic City, and Cape May, may be destined to be covered by the great ocean,

yet to many generations they may seem to be undisturbed by the advancing tides. During many summers, crowds will enjoy the attractions, listen to the music, and revel in the pleasures offered by these delightful resorts, like so many daughters of the sea, standing with outstretched hands and presenting, to one and all, beads still dripping with the splendors of the crystal depths.

PRIMARY INSTRUCTION.

II.

AS primary teachers, we are expected to educate specially the perceptive powers, since these are the first in the order of development. The child, it is true, is exercising to a certain extent these powers as soon as he opens his wondering eyes upon the objects about him; but how soon he needs a helping hand! The little one is not competent to select proper nourishment for the development of each dawning faculty. Suitable aliment must be furnished the mind, as well as the body, to insure a healthful, harmonious growth. Is it not well to ask ourselves, then, if we are providing food for the various perceptive powers in the ordinary routine of primary teaching? Are we not starving some of them at the expense of others? Are we making our children quick and accurate observers? Are we cultivating language, teaching our little ones to observe and to express the result of their observations, in drawing in written and spoken language, by our ordinary methods? This can be done while we are accomplishing the very important end of teaching reading, spelling, and number. We should not, however, be too anxious to see primary pupils performing difficult examples in Long Division. To me it is painful to see a child six, seven, or eight years of age, puzzling over an example in arithmetic. We think the time thus spent might be more pleasantly and profitably employed. The process, at best, is mostly mechanical, and

rarely a natural or pleasant exercise at so early an age. We think the first four or five school-years should be devoted mainly to perceptive culture, carrying the child on in the development process already so fairly commenced. Reading, spelling, and number, can be made observing lessons, and rendered exceedingly interesting to young children. But these alone will not give exercise to all the powers; and as they are frequently taught, they have a tendency rather to deaden than arouse them. The child's perception of color, form, size, place, time, etc., are not commonly brought into exercise in the ordinary school-course. Teachers who are *intelligently* following out the system called "object teaching," are paying more attention to this subject; and we believe competent judges who have visited the primary schools in Oswego, N. Y., the Normal School at Trenton, and the Farnum Preparatory School at Beverly, N. J., will bear witness to the happy results of this perceptive training. If any one is desirous of seeing children who are thoroughly awake, who "find books in running brooks, sermons in stones, and good in every thing," we advise him to pay a visit to one of these places.

Simply for the want of a better name, we term the improved methods for primary instruction, *Perceptive Exercises*. "Object teaching" seems hardly appropriate, since inanimate objects can not be taught; and if the children are the objects specified, the name would apply equally well to any other methods. The name itself

may have misled some teachers. We find those in the primary department who are in the habit of presenting some object, and giving a lengthened description of its parts, qualities, etc., expecting the little ones to remember the information given. This may be very well as an exercise for the memory. It may be an object lesson, but it is not a perceptive exercise; and as given to young children, we think it out of place. We have "object teaching" in all our higher departments, when under the direction of successful teachers. All the higher branches are taught objectively when taught properly, and if the mind is prepared for it, such teaching must be attended with great results. But how often do we hear teachers complain that they are obliged to do the work that should have been performed in the primary training! They are obliged to resort to various measures for the purpose of awakening observation and gaining attention. Every teacher knows how difficult a task it is to accomplish this, when the observing powers have not been properly exercised at the proper period. What we want, is, to be able to work hand in hand. We must prepare our children for the good things in store for them. The

reformation must commence in the primary department. Here the foundation is to be laid; and if properly laid, may we not hope to see the structure more substantially and beautifully completed? We do not wish to teach our children Natural Philosophy or Chemistry in the primary department, but we do wish to awaken the powers of mind which will naturally lead the child, at a proper time, to investigate and appreciate such studies, if he is never permitted to pursue them under the guidance of some learned professor. We shall have more self-made men and women, when these *Perceptive Exercises* are constituted a special feature of primary instruction. Our *Perceptive Exercises* are progressive, and given for the special purpose of developing the child's ideas of form, color, size, place, time, tune, number, etc., and nearly all of them are made lessons in reading, spelling, and language. We should teach our little ones to imitate and construct. They commence rudimentary drawing at an early age. We make natural readers, good spellers, ready calculators, fluent talkers, and sharp observers. How this is accomplished, we shall soon endeavor to show.

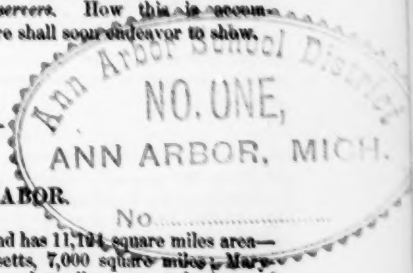
FREE AND SLAVE LABOR.

THE Hon. Robert J. Walker, in two recent letters to the *Continental Monthly*, on the finances and resources of the United States, communicates some exceedingly interesting facts bearing upon the influence of free and slave labor upon the prosperity of the country. He shows, by figures drawn from the late census, the disadvantages under which the Southern States have labored by reason of the existence of slavery there.

He compares, in the first place, Maryland with Massachusetts, selecting Maryland because that State has greater natural advantages, and because it has increased in population per square mile more rapidly from 1790 to 1860 than any other slaveholding State.

The subjoined extract will give a clear idea of the results to which Mr. Walker's figures tend.

Maryland has 11,194 square miles area—Massachusetts, 7,000 square miles; Maryland has a shore line, sea and river, of 1,336 miles—Massachusetts, 764 miles. In Maryland the rate of mortality is but 1 in 92; in Massachusetts, 1 in 57. The area of arable land in Maryland is more than double that of Massachusetts, and the soil more fertile. Maryland has inexhaustible mines of coal and iron, and the necessary fluxes; Massachusetts has no coal, no valuable mines of iron, nor fluxes. The population of Maryland in 1790 was 319,728; of Massachusetts, 378,717. In 1860 Maryland had 687,034—Massachusetts, 1,231,065. In seventy years Maryland increased 367,300; Massachusetts, 852,340, or more than double as much. In 1790 Maryland had 28 persons to the square mile—in 1860, 61; in 1790 Massachusetts had 48 to the square mile—in 1860, 157. Bear in mind



that Maryland has double the area of good land that Massachusetts has, and the enormous difference will be seen.

The value of the products of Massachusetts in 1860 was \$287,000,000; of Maryland, \$66,000,000. In Massachusetts it was \$235 per head; in Maryland, \$96. That is to say, the average annual value of the labor of each person in Massachusetts was greatly more than double that in Maryland. Massachusetts, with a smaller territory, had 1,340 miles of railroad—Maryland but 380. The value of all property, real and personal, was, in Massachusetts, \$815,000,000; in Maryland, \$376,000,000. Comparing this with the value of products before mentioned, the profit on capital was, in Massachusetts 35 per cent.—in Maryland, 17 per cent., or less than half; and it is a noticeable fact that in only two slave States, Delaware and Missouri, was the rate of profit larger than in Maryland, and both of these had comparatively fewer slaves.

If now we take intelligence as a standard, in Massachusetts the value of printed matter was in 1860, \$2,905,916; in Maryland, \$350,155. Massachusetts had 222 newspapers and periodicals, of which 112 were political, 31 religious, 51 literary, 28 miscellaneous; Maryland had only 57, all but one or two political. Massachusetts had 3,679 public schools; Maryland, 907. Massachusetts had 1,861 adults who could neither read nor write; Maryland, 38,426, *exclusive of her slaves*. Let free working men ponder these facts, and say under what system, whether of free or slave labor, they can earn the largest wages, or their children can receive the best education.

But Mr. Walker goes on to show a more remarkable fact—that as Maryland is to Massachusetts, so is South Carolina to Maryland. He shows that in 1860 the product per head in Massachusetts was \$235, in Maryland \$96, in South Carolina \$56; thus in free and educated Massachusetts the reward of labor is more than double that in Maryland, and four times that in South Carolina. "Slavery, then, the census proves, is hostile to the progress of wealth and population, to science, literature, and education, to schools, colleges, and universities, to books and libraries, to churches and religion, to the press, and therefore to free government; hostile to the poor, keeping them in want and ignorance; hostile to labor, reducing it to servitude, and decreasing by two-thirds the value of its products; hostile to morals, repudiating among slaves the marital and parental condition, classifying them by law as chattels, darkening the immortal soul, and making it a

crime to teach millions of human beings to read or write."

GRAY'S ELEGY IN A COUNTRY CHURCHYARD.—Mr. Gray had written his *Elegy* in the year 1750, and he communicated it to his friend Horace Walpole, who showed it about for some time in manuscript, and it was received with the applause it so justly deserved. It found its way into a magazine, and this was the means of first making him known to the public. We may fancy how his fastidious and shrinking mind would be annoyed by the circumstances which he thus relates in a letter to Walpole: "Cambridge, February 11, 1751. Yesterday I had the misfortune of receiving a letter from certain gentlemen (as their bookseller expresses it) who have taken the magazine of magazines into their hands. They tell me that an *ingenious* poem, called 'Reflections in a Country Churchyard,' has been communicated to them, which they are printing forthwith; that they are informed the *excellent* author of it is I, by name, and that they beg not only his *indulgence* but the *honor* of his correspondence, etc. As I am not at all disposed either to be so indulgent, or to correspond as they desire, I have but one bad way left to escape the honor they would inflict upon me, and therefore am obliged to desire you would make Dodsley print it immediately from your copy, but without my name. The title must be, 'Elegy written in a Country Churchyard.'"

Gray said: "The stanzas have been so applauded, it is quite a shame to repeat it. I mean not to be modest; but it is a shame for those who have said such superlative things about them, that I cannot repeat them."

An early tribute to the merits of the *Elegy* occurs in an anecdote related by Prof. Robinson, of Edinburgh, then a midshipman on board the "Royal William," one of the fleet engaged in the taking of Quebec. He happened to be on duty in the boat in which General Wolfe went to visit some of his posts the night before the battle, which was expected to be decisive of the fate of the campaign. The evening was fine; and the scene, considering the work they were engaged in, and the morning to which they were looking forward, sufficiently impressive. As they rowed along, the general, with much feeling, repeated nearly the whole of Gray's *Elegy* (which had appeared not long before, and was yet but little known) to an officer who sat with him in the stern of the boat; adding, as he concluded, that "he would prefer being the author of that poem to the glory of beating the French to-morrow."

AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY.

APRIL, 1864.

MILITARY SCHOOLS.

THE war for the Union has thoroughly awakened the nation from its fascinating dream of eternal peace. Its advent found us thoroughly unprepared for its stern realities, save in the possession of unbounded resources of crude and undeveloped material. We had millions of brave men, but they were untrained to the discipline of arms. We had inexhaustible supplies of iron, but it must be forged into swords and guns. Our granaries were groaning under the weight of food for man and beast. Our forests were dark with the shade of the oak and pine, but these must be turned into ships. In short, we were almost paralyzed with the consciousness of our utter unreadiness for the clash of contending hosts on the field of mortal combat.

But we have learned a lesson which we shall not soon forget. We have been taught that the surest guarantee for the reign of peace, is a state of perpetual readiness for the unrest of war. We are admonished that here, too, an ounce of prevention is better than a pound of cure.

In no one respect was our utter unreadiness for the great struggle more apparent than in that of trained soldiers—men competent to command the hosts marshalled for the defense of liberty and union—men whose military skill, penetration, and foresight, qualified them to transform peaceful citizens into disciplined soldiers, and lead them against the enemies of public law and human freedom. We had but one national military school. That had been for years under the insidious influence of the plotters against national life, and hence a large proportion of its graduates in the Army of the

United States proved recreant to their trusts, false to their oaths, and treasonable to their government. The nation for a time stood aghast at the spectacle of their wholesale perfidy and their monstrous crimes. Several of the rebellious States, who had long meditated and been preparing for the disruption of the Union, had established and were liberally supporting military schools; and hence, at the outbreak of the war, they enjoyed a vast advantage in the number and superiority of their officers for the various branches of their military service.

The experience of the last three years, however, seems likely to be instructive to us. We are arousing to the consciousness of our great needs, and providing for the more than possible exigencies of our still greater future. The subject of military instruction is already engaging a liberal share of public attention. We need no greater evidence of this, than is afforded by the numerous attempts to organize private military schools, and to teach a smattering of military tactics in our existing institutions of various grades. These efforts are praiseworthy, as indicating the right intention, and they may serve a temporarily useful purpose as far as they go. But they are totally inadequate to produce the results desired. A knowledge of tactics is but a small part of the needful acquirements of a true soldier, and these semi-military schools can impart only a limited and comparatively superficial amount of this particular kind of information. In numerous experiments which have come under our observation, it has been proved, that while only a superficial training in tactics is secured, the pseudo cadets soon lose all interest in the dull repetition of the mere routine-drill of the squad and the company. In these cases, too, the showy uniforms, the dress-parades, and, in general, the holiday soldiering practice of the classes, without the checks and balances of actual military discipline, generated a spirit of insubordination and imper-

tinence, for which the skill in *maneuvering* furnished no adequate compensating advantages. We do not want such soldiers. We have enough of that sort already; and these half-way military schools and exercises are calculated to increase rather than to abate the evil. This subject will be further discussed hereafter.

INDUSTRIAL COLLEGES.

THE recent action of Congress, looking to the establishment in the several States of institutions for instruction in Agriculture, and the applications of science to the mechanic arts, will result in bringing the question of industrial education prominently before the American people, and eventually in supplying a great want in the material enterprises of the country. This want is that of highly educated men as specialists, to lead in the development of our resources as a producing, manufacturing, and commercial people. Sixteen States having accepted the Congressional grants, and hence incurred the accompanying obligation to organize the institutions contemplated by the act, the subject has already assumed a degree of importance that justifies the earnest and enlightened attention of the thoughtful friends of educational progress in the United States.

The problem of the hour in reference to this matter, is, as to what shall be the plan of organization and course of instruction in the proposed institutions. The entire question of their success or failure, turns upon the solution to be given to this problem. But the plan of organization and course of study, must somewhat depend upon the particular form which the institution shall take. If it be an appendage to some other establishment, whose aims are different, its organization and curriculum must be modified to suit these circumstances. If, on the contrary, it is to be established upon an independent basis, and with special reference only to its peculiar objects, secondary to no other aims, the

problem referred to is comparatively simple, and the conditions of its proper solution are direct and easy of fulfillment.

A very able and timely discussion of this subject, is presented in "*A Report upon a Plan for the organization of Colleges for Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts, with especial reference to the organization of the Agricultural College of Pennsylvania,*" in view of the endowment of this Institution by the land grant fund donated by Congress.

This Report is from the pen of the President of the Faculty of that Institution, and is addressed to its Board of Trustees. We certainly commend it to the careful consideration of all who are interested in the organization of these institutions about to be established in so many different States.

The Report sets out with a statistical table, showing the educational resources of eighteen of the more prominent American literary colleges, with a view to demonstrate that *very liberal endowments are indispensable to the production of great educational advantages*. For example: New York University requires an endowment of \$250,000, to afford the services of 36 Professors, and the aid of 10,000 volumes, to 488 students; its annual income being \$14,011. Columbia College, with an endowment of \$1,650,666, affords the services of 48 Professors, and the use of 18,000 volumes, to 689 students, at an annual expense of \$79,269. Harvard University requires an endowment of \$1,613,884, with an annual expenditure of \$153,431, to give to 833 students the benefit of 56 Professors and 149,000 volumes. The bearing of these facts upon the necessity of preserving the *unity and integrity of the land-grant fund*, is too obvious to require comment. To those who are not familiar with expenses involved in carrying on first-class institutions, these figures will be surprising. And they will be still more surprised to learn that some of these seats of learning are actually running into debt annually, by reason of the excess of their expenses over their incomes.

We regret that our space will not permit us to give, at this time, an intelligible synopsis of this valuable Report. We shall endeavor to do so hereafter. It proceeds to consider "the resources required to sustain Agricultural and Industrial Colleges," arriving at the conclusion that an extensive system of industrial education, "embracing the entire range of the Natural and Physical Sciences, can be efficiently carried out only on a large and liberal plan, supported by endowments equal to those of the best Educational Colleges in the country." An elaborate plan for the organization of this class of colleges is then presented, including the college-buildings, apparatus, museums, library, etc., and a consideration of the Course of Study, Professorships, Assistants, and other officers, with detailed estimates of the expenses attending the administration of an Institution of 400 Students, 16 Professors, 10 Assistants, and a Farm-superintendent. It is estimated that the entire grant to Pennsylvania, amounting to 720,000 acres, will not realize an annual income of more than from \$10,000 to \$20,000. The Report closes with a consideration of the preposterous claims put forth by some of the literary colleges of the country for this grant, or portions of it. It takes the most decided ground against this pretension, arguing that such a diversion of the fund would be destructive to all the interests involved.

BUSINESS.

WE have seen conspicuously posted in some of our counting-houses, a card, bearing the following inscription, or something akin to it:

"Call upon a man of business in hours of business, only upon business; transact your business and go about your business, leaving him time to attend to *his* business."

This is a business maxim, put in a decidedly business-like way. There is no mistaking its import. It evidently owes its origin to the pressure of a great necessity. It

recognizes the existence of a class of beings belonging to the *genus homo*, which, in common parlance, are denominated *bores*; and it was especially designed to operate as a gentle check upon their remorseless depredations. Business men know and feel the value of time. They are made to know and feel it, through the stern teachings of experience, and they are compelled *per force* to act upon their convictions. A fortune may be lost or won through the negligence or diligence of one brief hour. A credit, which it has required years of earnest effort and unremitting toil to establish, may be ruined by the loss of a single minute on the way to the banking-house. A policy of insurance expires. Its renewal is postponed until to-morrow. The devouring flames of the intervening night swallow up the hard-earned treasures of a laborious lifetime. Hence the value of time; and hence, too, the keen appreciation of it by men of business.

But again. Men of business work for material results. Their reward, their gains or losses, are made to appear in palpable forms from day to day, from hour to hour. And these results bear a strikingly appreciable ratio to the effort put forth during the time employed. It is thus that business becomes so efficient as an *educating power*. It is thus that the men of business become the men of action, of energy, and of resource.

We wish that teachers and professional educators, as a class, could by some means be brought up to the requirements of the terse maxim which we have quoted above. We wish that teachers could be made to feel more keenly the value of time, not only in their professional labors, but in their intercourse with their fellow-men. We wish that they would learn to call on men of business only in hours of business, and that they would learn to transact their business in a business-like way, and then go about their business. It is no mean accomplishment for one to know *how* to put his case, how to bring it to a point, and how to desist when the point is

reached and decided. In other words, it is a great thing to know when one's business is done, and how to act accordingly. It is a great thing to know when business ends and *boring* begins.

Whoever will impart this sublime power of discernment to the masses of the people, will be a benefactor of the race. It can be done only through the educators of the people. To this end, teachers must themselves learn and practice it. They must learn to do business in a business-like manner. They must respect business maxims in practice as well as in theory. They must refrain from the boring process. They must not be loungers, and gossipers, and busybodies, in hours and places of business, or at other times and places. Thus will they demonstrate their disposition and capacity to impress upon the minds and hearts of the generations to come, those rules of conduct which regulate the life of an enterprising and truly civilized society.

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The January or first number of this new magazine has reached us, and it seems to have more promise of permanence and usefulness than its predecessors of the same class. For years, book publishers have been in the habit of starting periodicals of this kind, with just enough of general educational matter in them to attract the attention of teachers, but with the main purpose of noticing and advertising their own publications, and those connected with them. This is the best specimen of the kind we have seen. There are some really good articles in it, and it is worth a dollar.

WE find the foregoing patronizing notice in the February number of the "Pennsylvania School Journal." To all who may happen to see that number, this precious scrap will appear like a ghastly joke, perpetrated by the proverbially amia-

ble editor of that periodical, upon his own literary performances.

If "book publishers did not *start*" the *Journal*, it is obvious that one or two of them contrive to *run* the best part of the machine, if there be such a dubious fraction, now that it is "started."

For example, the leading editorial, on the first page, is an advertisement of a forthcoming book. The third article in the editorial columns, is a personal puff of sundry individuals, including "we." Turning over exactly two leaves, we come to the "Book Notices," introduced by a piteous appeal to "book publishers" to send in "standard works on general science and literature," and not "confine their advertisements and books sent for notice, merely to the school-room class!" The book notices thus paraded in the most prominent part of the *Journal*, occupy three pages, all but one column of which being monopolized by two "book publishing" houses.

In view of these facts, we think the foregoing notice is as rich a specimen of the pharisaical style of literature as can be found. When *our* leading articles or editorials are "devoted to noticing and advertising our own publications, and those connected with them," or when we literally thrust our book notices into the faces of our readers, "giving just enough of educational matter to attract the attention of teachers" at the caudal extremity of the monthly, we will meekly confess, that in respect to literary taste, professional devotion, and mechanical skill, we are in danger of competing with our neighbor.

However, we always receive even *small* favors thankfully. The *Journal* finally comes to the conclusion that "this is really the best specimen of the kind that has been seen; that there are some good articles in it, and that it is worth a dollar." We wish we could say as much for the *Journal*. We hope our Keystone neighbor will take notice that we give from forty-eight to sixty-four pages for that same dollar, and that we do not mean to offend good taste

by tolerating a slipshod mechanical execution of our work, nor impose upon our readers by displaying "Book Notices," personal compliments, and showy advertisements, where they have a right to look for something more instructive and useful.

THE number of Normal Schools recognized as State institutions in Pennsylvania, is three, instead of one, as reported in a recent article upon that subject. There are so many schools bearing this title in that State, that it is not easy always to distinguish between the State and private institutions. The article referred to, stated that there was one, and not *but* one. It told the truth, but not the *whole* truth. The private Normal School at Westchester, is one of the best in the State. We are under the impression that no appropriations are made to any of these schools, but that they are sustained by private enterprise alone. If this be so, they

are only nominally State schools. We should like to see the Keystone State appropriate liberally to her Normal Schools, as being the most efficient instrumentalities in the whole scheme of popular education.

WE publish in the present number, an article on the "Old and the New in Education," from the pen of a gentleman who has had a long and successful experience as an educator. It well deserves the attention of the thoughtful reader. Although there may be some difference of opinion respecting the theory of our correspondent in regard to the subject-matter of our popular reading-books, there will be found in this paper much food for profitable reflection. We shall be glad to see the subject thoroughly discussed, and our columns will be open for the presentation of brief and well-digested papers upon both sides of this question.

EDITORIAL CORRESPONDENCE.

LANSING, MICH., Feb. 22d, 1864.

To the Editor of the American Educational Monthly:

I perceive that a writer in your journal, for the present month, "believes" Pennsylvania the only State in the Union that has an Agricultural College "open at this time." Permit me to correct this error, as far as our State is concerned.

In the spring of 1857, the State Agricultural College of Michigan, opened with one hundred students; many others being unable to gain admission for want of accommodations. The location is three miles from the Capital, upon a farm of 600 acres. At the outset, this was nearly all heavily timbered with beech, maple, oak, &c. Now it is about half under cultivation; and if you know any thing of the labor of clearing up our forests of the West, you will believe that the College has not been without students; for all this work has been performed by them.

For the land and buildings, the State has

expended over one hundred thousand dollars; and the current expenses are met, from year to year, by appropriations directly from the State treasury. This the State will continue to do, until an endowment shall be realized from the sale of lands granted by Congress. The amount granted to Michigan, is 240,000 acres; which eventually must produce a fund of over half a million dollars.

We therefore consider our Agricultural College a fixed fact for all coming time; perhaps destined to rival in importance our State University, with its half million fund and eight hundred students.

Since the Rebellion culminated, the number of students has diminished about one-half; many having left for the army. A goodly number from this Institution are in the Regiment of Engineers, which, for two years, has made itself famous for bridge-building in Kentucky and Tennessee. But the school is constantly growing in favor with the farmers of the State, and as soon as the war is over, many will be refused

admission, as they were before the war, for want of room in the buildings.

Michigan is an agricultural State; but whether agriculture will always remain our leading interest, admits of doubt. Our iron and copper mines are inexhaustible in supply, and unsurpassed in quality. Our forests will, for a hundred years yet, be a source of immense wealth. A large portion of the State contains excellent beds of coal, and our petroleum-wells will soon be flowing. Already we rival the Empire State in the manufacture of salt, and we can equal any State in the production of fruit. With all these advantages, manufactures can not be kept in the background. Many a city in the land would be glad to

exchange its debt for our entire State debt. Our common schools are flourishing, even in the third year of the war, as never before. We have sent nearly sixty thousand men to the field, yet all the arts of peace thrive within our borders.

In all the varied interests of the State, the Agricultural College is well adapted to prepare our young men for success. In none of them, will the studies there pursued, be found otherwise than useful and advantageous.

We wish your readers, therefore, to understand that Michigan is a great, prosperous, patriotic, and intelligent State; and has, for seven years, had an Agricultural College in successful operation. C. B. S.

EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

THE Training School for primary teachers, established by an act of the Legislature of the State of New York, will go into operation on the 18th of April, under the direction of Superintendent Sheldon. The appropriation for the purpose is, we believe, \$5,000 per year, the buildings being furnished by the citizens of Oswego. The following is a synopsis of the plan of the school, kindly furnished by Mr. Sheldon.

Course of Instruction.—This will consist, 1st, in *Instruction in Methods*; 2d, *Instruction in the Natural Sciences*; and 3d, what may be more strictly termed *Professional Instruction*.

I. Under the first head will be included instruction in methods of presenting Form, Size, Weight, Color, Number (including Arithmetic), Language (including Grammar), Reading, Spelling, Drawing, Geography; also of giving lessons in Objects, including lessons on Animals and Plants, and the Human Body.

This instruction will be accompanied with *Model Lessons*, illustrating fully the methods at every point. In addition to this, the pupils will be required to observe and practise one-half of each day in the Model and Practising Schools, of which there is one for each grade, including the first five years of the child's school-life. The school will be divided into two sections, one of which will be in recitation while the other

is in the Practising Schools. Thus, one-half the time is given to practise, and the other half to instruction.

II. The *Instruction in the Natural Sciences*, will include Zoology, Botany, Geology, Mineralogy, and Chemistry, and perhaps Physiology. Thorough instruction in these is regarded as essential to the highest success of the teacher in the methods pursued.

III. In *Professional Instruction*, will be included Mental and Moral Philosophy, School History, Organization and Discipline.

Terms of Admission.—Before admission, an examination will be instituted in Arithmetic, Grammar, Geography, Spelling, Reading; also in Algebra as far as Quadratic Equations, Geometry (1st Book), and History of the United States.

In the last three named branches, the examination will be less thorough than in the former. Fifty per cent. of correct answers is required.

SCHOOLS OF NEW YORK CITY.—The annual report of S. S. Randall, Superintendent of the New York city schools, for 1863, states that there are, under the general jurisdiction of the Board of Education, 45 grammar-schools for boys, 45 for girls, 3 for boys and girls, 47 primary departments, 42 primary schools, 2 grammar-schools for

colored boys, 2 for colored girls, 4 for colored children of both sexes, 2 primary departments, and 2 primary schools for colored children; making, in all, 194 separate schools and departments. In addition to this, there are 12 corporate schools participating in the public money, 1 free academy for boys, 26 evening schools for boys, 22 for girls, and 2 for colored children of both sexes. The whole number of children taught during the year, was 201,124; an increase over 1862, of 29,718. The whole number of teachers employed in the several schools during the year, was 1,934; of whom 200 were males, and the remainder, 1,734, females.

The superintendent gives a detailed account of the character, progress, and present condition of the several schools in each ward. The number of pupils taught in each ward, ranges from 425 in the second, to 13,738 in the twentieth. He again urges the establishment of a normal school for the training of teachers, together with a high-school for girls. More attention to physical culture is recommended, and the furnishing of the large halls, basements, and playgrounds, attached to each school, with all the necessary apparatus requisite for this purpose, as a measure beneficial to health, and preventive of premature disease, the danger of which is imminent from the confinement of pupils for six hours of each school-day.

The report of Assistant Superintendent Calkins gives an account of the course of study, and of the general condition of the primary schools and departments. He also sets forth the need of a well-organized Training School, for educating teachers in the principles and methods of teaching, as the greatest want for securing improvement in primary instruction. "What our teachers most need," he truly says, "is not greater scholarship than may be obtained in the present course of instruction in the grammar-schools, but the knowledge of *how to teach children* what they themselves know. Nine teachers fail from the lack of knowing how to teach, to one that fails from lack of book-knowledge."

Mr. Calkins gives a detailed account of the process of teaching pursued, and presents a course of studies for the considera-

tion of the Board, with the view of improving the mode of instruction in the primary schools. He calls attention to the want of more primary schools; and states that nearly every primary school and department in the city is now crowded to excess, and that there are about 40,000 children in the city, over four years of age, who do not attend any school.

The reports of Assistant Superintendents Kiddle, Jones, and Seton, also present interesting views in relation to instruction in the schools.

GENERAL BANKS has laid off the territory under his jurisdiction, in Louisiana, into school-districts, and is organizing a system of common-school instruction for the children, as well as a free paid labor system for the adult population of that sunny clime. General Banks is a statesman, as well as a soldier. He knows how to organize the forces of a free, peaceful, and happy community, as well as those for the stern work of grim-visaged war. We shall watch with the deepest interest this process of reorganization in Southern society.

ABOUT a year ago the Massachusetts Legislature adopted a resolution authorizing the governor to appoint a commission to inquire into the expediency of establishing a State military academy. The commission was appointed, consisting of the Hon. Edward Everett, John M. Fessenden, an old graduate of West Point, Wm. S. Clark, formerly a professor at Amherst College, and for a while an officer in a Massachusetts volunteer regiment, and they have recently submitted their report for the action of the Legislature. The report, evidently written by Mr. Everett, is brief and comprehensive. By visits to West Point and the Naval Academy at Newport, and correspondence with our ministers at London and Paris relative to institutions for military education in Europe, the commissioners have collected a large amount of information, which they have not had time to arrange and submit in detail yet, but which is promised hereafter. The results to which they have arrived may be stated briefly thus: They are of the opinion that the introduction of military exercises and

drill into our colleges, academies, and schools of a higher grade, though useful to a certain extent, would not meet the demands of the country and the times; that whatever the immediate complexion of the future may be, it will bring with it an imperative call for a more systematic, extensive, and effective development of the military power of the country than has yet taken place; that for the increase of the means of military education the people of Massachusetts must for the present and for some time to come rely upon their own resources; that private military academies are not organized on a basis sufficiently comprehensive for all branches of military education; and that difficulty would exist in the want of authority to govern them by martial law. The commissioners, therefore, recommend the establishment of a military academy for the State of Massachusetts, at which provision shall be made for the education of about two hundred young men of suitable age, to be divided into three classes, being at the present time one annually for every twenty-one hundred of the population of the State. They contemplate a first-class institution. A high standard of qualification for admission is proposed; and the practice of competitive examinations will require the schools at which the candidates are prepared to aim in their turn at an elevated standard. The military and naval schools of the United States labor under a disadvantage in this respect of qualification, as their pupils, for paramount public reasons, are taken in geographical proportion from every part of the Union; and it follows that the requisite qualifications of candidates for admission cannot rise above the state of education in any part of the country. In view of this high and uniform standard, a three years' course may be substituted for the four years' course at West Point. The commissioners estimate that such an institution as they propose can be put in operation for about \$175,000, and carried on at an annual expense of about \$56,000.—*Round Table.*

COMMON SCHOOLS IN MICHIGAN.—The School Reports of 1863 in Michigan show an increasing prosperity in every respect.

More children, more teachers, and more means are reported than in any former year. And in but one year has the average length of the schools ever been greater, and that only one-tenth of a month more. More money was raised by voluntary taxation, and less by the odious rate-bill, than ever before. It is quite evident that, while sending about one in every fourteen of her population to chastise rebellion, the State has not forgotten that liberty and education must not be divorced.

The number of children reported between five and twenty years of age is 273,620; an increase during the year of 12,297. This shows an increase of population of about 38,000. Of the above number, 216,144 attended the common schools, in addition to which several thousand are reported in private schools. When it is considered how many leave school for the active duties of life at eighteen years of age, the conclusion is pretty certain that Michigan is raising very few uneducated citizens.

The number of graded, or Union schools, is 124. In these schools, some of which number several thousand pupils, the principals receive salaries of \$600 to \$1,200. In the State the average of wages was, to male teachers, \$28.17 per month, and to females, \$12.42. The total number of teachers was 8,825; and the average length of the schools was six and one-tenth months.

The amount paid for teachers' wages was \$520,012. The total school resources for the year were \$828,000. Of this about \$130,000 was from a permanent school fund; \$277,000 from a State tax of two mills on the dollar of property as assessed; and nearly all of the remainder was from voluntary taxation by the tax-payers of 4,382 several districts. The pecuniary prosperity of the schools is shown (and from this may be inferred that of the State) in the fact that \$106,000 was reported on hand at the close of the year, or \$21,000 more than in the year preceding.

The value of school-houses reported is \$1,868,000. Several districts have school-houses that cost from \$15,000 to \$40,000 each. One district has a stately edifice that cost \$50,000.

For the preparation of teachers, the State supports a Normal School at an annual expense of about \$13,000, at which 406 were in attendance during the year. About twelve local State Teachers' Institutes, of one week each, are also held annually by the State Superintendent of Public Instruc-

tion, where, in the last four years, over 6,000 teachers have received special training.

Such statistics as these, from a State yet but little more than "out of its teens," ought to rejoice the hearts of educators in other States, and excite them to renewed efforts throughout the land.

SCIENTIFIC.

STORM-GLASS.—A very simple and useful instrument for indicating changes of the weather, may be constructed of a glass tube about ten inches long and three-fourths of an inch in diameter, having its mouth covered with a piece of bladder, perforated with a needle. The tube must be partly filled with a mixture of two drachms of camphor, half a drachm of pure saltpetre, and half a drachm of sal-ammoniack, pulverized and mixed with about two ounces of proof-spirits. It is usually suspended by a thread near a window, and the functions of its contents are as follows: If the atmosphere is dry, and the weather promises to be settled, the solid parts of the camphor in the liquid contained in the tube, will remain at the bottom, and the liquid above will be quite clear; but on the approach of a change to rain, the solid matter will gradually rise, and small crystalline stars will float about in the liquid. On the approach of high winds, the solid parts of the camphor will rise in the form of leaves, and appear near the surface in a state resembling fermentation. These indications are sometimes manifested *twenty-four hours* before a storm breaks out!

The cause of these indications is as yet unknown; but the leading principle is the solubility of camphor in alcohol, and its insolubility in water, combined with the fact that the drier the atmosphere the more aqueous vapor does it take up, and *vice versa*.

THE POWER OF SCIENCE.—It has long been known that the solar spectrum is crossed by fine, dark lines. Upon careful examination, it has been found that the spectra produced by the analysis of the

light proceeding from all incandescent bodies, have similar lines, but each substance gives its own peculiar arrangement to them. Thus we have a new method of chemical analysis; and so delicate is this test, that several new metals have been discovered by it in substances which had been repeatedly analyzed, with the utmost care, by the old methods. It has recently been applied to the light of the heavenly bodies with such success, as to make it probable that we shall soon be able to determine the chemical composition of even the fixed stars!

A STRIKING evidence of the slowness with which knowledge is diffused, is furnished by the frequent occurrence, in receipts for cooking, of directions to boil slowly, or to boil rapidly, for some specified length of time. It should at this day be known, that any thing will cook just as quickly in water boiling as slowly as possible, as it will in water boiling with the greatest fury. Water, under the pressure of the atmosphere and at the level of the sea, boils at 212° Fah.; and as long as it is open to the air, no fire, however fierce, will heat it a single degree above this temperature. If we close the vessel, however, with an air-tight cover, so as to increase the pressure upon the surface of the liquid, we may heat it to any degree whatever. But, as the pressure increases with the temperature, the strength of the boiler must be increased in the same proportion. On the other hand, if the pressure of the air on the surface of the water is diminished by raising the vessel above the surface of the earth, the water will boil at a lower temperature than 212° Fah. It

takes longer to boil potatoes on the top of a mountain than at its base, because boiling water at the top of the mountain is not so hot as at its base. In sugar refineries, it is desirable to boil down the sirup at a low temperature, in order to avoid burning the sugar. This is effected by putting the sirup into an air-tight boiler, and draining out a portion of the air from the space above the sirup, by means of an air-pump worked by a steam-engine. Such a boiler is called a vacuum-pan, and is used in many other operations besides the refining of sugar.

MINERAL salt is now brought in ballast from Russia; it sells for \$20 a tun. It is mined in blocks, that to the eye appear to be quartz. A thirty-pound block of it, placed in a box in a field, will supply a herd of cows for some weeks. It is as hard as stone. Ordinary salt would dissolve in one-fourth the time. No other country yet known yields this peculiar product. It is quarried precisely as we quarry marble.

LIGHT from petroleum costs about one-third as much as the same quantity from gas, at New York prices; and the petroleum light is better for the eyes, and of superior quality in every respect. It is essential, however, to use a shade upon the lamp. Otherwise, it is, if possible, worse for the eyes than gas.

TUNGSTEN AND ITS ALLOYS.—Some important and interesting experiments have lately been made in France, by order of the Minister of War, to determine the influence produced by *tungsten* upon gun-metal, steel, and cast-iron, when combined with them and forming alloys. Tungsten is one of the rare metals, which the great majority of persons have never seen. Its name signifies "heavy stone," and it is also called *wolfram*. In its native state it is found as an ore, associated with iron, manganese, sulphur, and arsenic. It is reduced from the ore by fusion with carbon, and with a current of hydrogen gas. In the metallic state it is difficult of fusion, hard, brittle, and gray in color. There is only one mine of tungsten ore in France. When roasted, the sulphur and arsenic are

driven off, leaving iron and manganese combined with the tungsten. The experiments, which were conducted by M. Caron, satisfactorily proved that when one per cent. of tungsten was added to cast-iron, the grain of the latter became more regular, and there was greater homogeneity exhibited. The addition of one per cent. of tungsten to steel, increased its hardness and tenacity. A steel rifle-barrel, containing that amount of tungsten, was subjected to severe tests, and it withstood larger charges of powder, and heavier shot, than any other steel barrel of the same dimensions tested. M. Caron recommends the employment of tungsten in all French steel, to improve its quality.

It is easy enough to condense steam, and to burn the visible particles of carbon which we term smoke. The latter operation can indeed always be carried out by a skillful fireman; but the gaseous products of combustion have never been completely consumed in any instance that we know of. It is therefore thought, that in the underground railroad in London, air may yet be used for propelling the trains, similar to that used by the Pneumatic Dispatch Company. The use of air for such purposes, is a subject worthy of patient investigation.

FROM a given weight of hydrogen gas under combustion, a greater quantity of steam can be generated, than from an equal weight of any other known combustible. A pound of pure carbon will evaporate $12\frac{1}{2}$ pounds of water, and convert it into steam of 15 pounds pressure on the square inch. One pound of good Pennsylvania anthracite is capable of raising $9\frac{1}{2}$ pounds of water, at 212° Fah., into steam.

THERE is now in operation at the Electric Telegraph Company's office, London, an instrument, which, from its ingenuity of construction and perfection of results, deserves attention. The object is to transmit autograph messages in the exact form in which they are written; and the most complicated figures, designs, sketches, or indeed any thing that can be drawn by an ordinary pen, are transmitted as readily as the simplest dot or stroke.

MISCELLANY.

VIRGIL ON THE LYRIC STAGE.—M. Berlioz, the eminent French composer, has not only written an opera called "The Trojans," the incidents taken from Virgil's "Æneid," but has himself composed the *libretto* for it. We are told the subject is the old, fascinating, sad, ugly story of "Didone Abbandonata"—a story which has been set before by a multitude of composers, Vinci, Jomelli, Anfossi, Haydn, Piccini, Storace, and no doubt many more. The piece is spoken of with enthusiasm by Parisian critics. A septett, sung by Æneas and Ascanius, Dido and her sister, and some Carthaginian nobles, gained an encore the first night, and is described as a magnificent *ensemble*. Madame Charton-Demeur plays "Dido." The opera has been mounted in a style of profuse splendor.

UNIVERSITY OF WILNA.—The Czar is about establishing a Russian University in Wilna, "for the better representation of Russian interests in Lithuania," in place of the Polish University formerly existing there.

MELANTHON.—The bronze monument of Melancthon, which is to be erected at Wittenberg, where he died 303 years ago, is now finished. It has been cast at Berlin.

THE VIOLIN.—This musical instrument has found two historians—William Sandys and S. A. Forster—who have written an octavo volume of 408 pages, with engravings, and many illustrations, expressly devoted to its history, and that of other instruments played on with the bow, from the remotest times to the present; also an account of the principal makers, English and foreign. The price in England is fourteen shillings.

A WORD ABOUT CHAIRS.—An eminent physician, speaking of our chairs, remarks that they are too high, and too nearly horizontal. We slide forward, and our spines ache. The seats should be fifteen or sixteen inches high in front for men, and from eight to fourteen inches for children and

women. The back part of the seat should be from one to three inches lower than the front part. This last is very important. The depth of the seat, from front to back, should be the same as the height. The chair-back is likewise unphilosophical. The part which meets the small of the back, should project furthest forward. Instead of this, at that point there is generally a hollow; this is the cause of much pain and weakness in the small of the back. The present seats produce discomfort, round shoulders, and other distortions.

This subject especially demands the earnest attention of all who are interested in the construction and furnishing of school-houses.

"Ah, well! for us all some sweet hope lies,
Deeply hidden from mortal eyes;
And in the hereafter, angels may,
Roll the stone from its grave away."

WHAT is it to be wise?

'Tis but to know how little can be known,
To see all others' faults, and feel our own.

THE blindest of all eyes most blind,
Are those forever turned behind.

THERE may be apples-of-Sodom persons and things, whose exteriors are utterly deceptive; but the *rule* of life is to judge by appearances.

DISCRETION in speech is more than eloquence.

POVERTY is in want of much, but avarice of every thing.

CHARMS strike the sight,
But merit wins the soul.

TRUE happiness

Consists not in a multitude of friends,
But in their worth and choice.

THE great Mont Cenis tunnel through the Alpine pass, is making slow but steady progress. Boring-machines were set to work in 1861. During the past year, cutting was done at the rate of 4 feet 5 inches per day, so that at the present rate of working, it will require nearly 15 years to complete the job! The rock in which the

excavation is at present being made, is exceedingly difficult to work, having what the engineers have termed an "infelicitous stratification."

LORD BRACO, a miser of the most intense class, was a Scottish judge of the last century. One of his farmers, seeing him one day pick up a farthing, said: "I would give a shilling, Lord Braco, to have a sight of all the gold and silver which you possess." "Well, man," his lordship replied, "it shall cost you no more." The shilling was paid down in hand, and his lordship fulfilled his part of the bargain, exhibiting to his tenant a considerable number of iron boxes filled with gold and silver money. "Now, my lord," said the tenant, "I am as rich as you, after all." "How, my man?" said his lordship. "Because I see the money, my lord, and you have not the heart to do any thing more with it."

SOME use words as riflemen do bullets. They are little. The few words used go right to the mark. They let you talk, and guide with your eye and face, till what you say can be answered in a word or two, and then they launch out a sentence and pierce the matter to the quick, and are done. You never know where you are with them. Your conversation falls into their minds as rivers into deep chasms, and are lost from sight by its depth and darkness. They will sometimes surprise you with words that go right to the mark like a gunshot, and they are silent again, as if reloading.

STONE bullets were used until the year 1514, when they were supplanted by iron. It was near the close of the sixteenth century, before leaden bullets were generally adopted. Stone cannon-balls are yet used in some of the Eastern countries.

THE FORLORN HOPE.—Military and civic writers of the present day, seem quite ignorant of the true meaning of the expression, "forlorn hope." The *adjective* has nothing to do with despair, nor the *substantive* with the "charmer which lingers still behind;" there was no such poetical depth in the words as originally used.

Every corps marching in an enemy's country, had a small body of men at the head (*haupt* or *hope*, or perhaps *Hausfen*, a troop) of the advance-guard, and which was termed the *forlorn hope* (*lorn* being here but a termination similar to *ward* in *foreward*), while another small body at the head of the rear-guard was called the *rear-lorn hope*. (See "A Treatise of Ireland, by John Dymmock," page 32, written about the year 1600, and printed by the Irish Archaeological Society, in 1843.) A reference to Johnson's Dictionary proves that civilians were misled, as early as the time of Dryden, by the mere sound of a technical military phrase; and in process of time, even military men forget the true meaning of the words. It grieves me to sap the foundations of an error, to which we are indebted for Byron's beautiful phrase: "Full of hope, misnamed forlorn."—*Dr. Graves.*

A PUBLIC speaker should never lose sight of the thread of his discourse. Like a busy needle, he should always have the thread in his eye.

LIFE is a constant struggle for riches, which we must soon leave behind. They seem given to us as the nurse gives a plaything to a child, to amuse it until it falls asleep.

BOILEAU, being frequently called upon by an idle, ignorant person, who complained to him that he did not return his visits—"Sir," said the French satirist, "we are not upon equal terms. You call upon me merely to get rid of your time; when I call upon you I lose mine."

MR. PARMENTER, now of the firm of Messrs. Parmenter & Walker, has for many years made the best chalk crayon for the blackboard which has been made in this country. We are informed that this firm have recently made some decided improvements in their crayons. They are made finer, and are less rough and offensive to the touch, and make a smoother mark upon the board than formerly. These crayons are free from grit, and we are sure that they are the best chalk crayons now made in America.

LITERARY NOTICES.

OF WATSON'S HAND-BOOK OF CALISTHENICS AND GYMNASTICS, the Editor of the New York *Daily Times* writes as follows :

"This is the most elaborate attempt yet made to apply practically to educational purposes the great truths of physiology, relating to physical culture and training. These facts, though universally recognized by science, have too often remained a dead-letter, and the education of the masses has been carried on not only in neglect, but in absolute contradiction and opposition to the vitally important considerations deducible from them. Mr. Watson's object is to strengthen the lungs and every portion of the muscular system, by appropriate exercises, that shall at once be pleasing, healthful, and invigorating, conducted by simple means, within the reach of every school and family. The first division, entitled 'Vocal Gymnastics,' relates to the subject of respiration, the management of the voice, and the theory and practice of elocution, based on physiological and anatomical data. The second, 'Calisthenics,' embraces the manual exercises, games, &c., adapted to the purposes of primary instruction, with appropriate music. The third portion, 'Gymnastics,' continues the same subject, with more advanced lessons and apparatus, rendering it a complete instruction-book of exercises that develop the lungs, the voice, the organs of speech, the joints, the sinews, and the muscles. Numerous illustrations render clear the instructions of the teacher, and the work has evidently been prepared by one who is conscious of the requirements of the learner, and has studied the most effectual way of meeting and supplying them. To those in authority, whose influence would be effectual in promoting the circulation of this book, it becomes a positive duty so to do by every means in their power. All who have the physical welfare of the human race at heart, and understand how powerless the intellect is to contend against the burden of a feeble and emaciated frame, are equally interested in its teachings, and answerable, each in his own sphere, however small it be, for the consequences of neglecting them."

We have received the prospectus of "The School and Family Visitor," the first number of which will be issued on the 15th of April next, at Louisville, Ky. The *Visitor* is to be under the editorial charge of Prof. W. N. Hailman, of the Louisville High School. For the *teacher*, it will contain articles on the practical duties of his profession, educational intelligence, and reviews of books.

To *parents and children* it will bring articles on home instruction, concise biogra-

phies, instructive anecdotes, stories, enigmas, etc. To *all*, it will furnish interesting articles on science, art, and literature, with a current history of their progress.

The establishment of an educational periodical in the "border state" of Kentucky, is a *sign of the times*. In fact, one of the remarkable results of this war is found in the great activity which already prevails in the expansion of our educational system, and the aggressive movements of the common schools toward the far South.

We extend to the *Visitor* a hearty welcome in advance. In the hands of a gentleman of Prof. Hailman's abilities and energy, it will know no such word as fail.

WELLS' SCIENTIFIC SCHOOL-BOOKS.

I. SCIENCE OF COMMON THINGS. II. NATURAL PHILOSOPHY. III. PRINCIPLES OF CHEMISTRY. IV. PRINCIPLES OF GEOLOGY.

As elementary text-books for students, we believe they have no equals; and as books of familiar reference, they deserve a place in every family library. Concise, clear, and accurate, yet containing the latest results of scientific research and experiment, they have none of the dryness so generally characteristic of philosophical works; but page after page exhibits the beautiful workings and magnificent results of science, in so attractive and lucid a manner, that the interest of the reader never wavers. We are glad to perceive that Mr. Wells is vigilant in introducing new facts and discoveries in science, and incorporating them with the text from time to time; thus each edition is brought nearer and nearer to perfection, and made more worthy of public confidence.

As was to be expected from their high character, we learn that their success has been very great, and that they have rapidly found their way into the best schools and seminaries in all parts of the country. Mr. Wells is well known to the public as a man of scientific attainments, and as the editor and originator of the "Annual of Scientific Discovery."

THE STUDENT AND SCHOOL-MATE, published monthly, at one dollar a year, now in its thirteenth year of publication, not only sustains its early reputation as an instructor of youth, but is constantly gaining in popularity and circulation. No pains are spared in supplying its pages with useful and instructive matter. Stories for children, interspersed with scientific subjects, treated in a familiar manner; history; biography; letters of tourists; speeches for declamation, with representations of attitude in character, with words marked for emphasis; an origi-

nal dialogue in each number, adapted to the wants of schools, associations, and social circles; and twelve select pieces of music in the year—are a few of the many attractions which this work presents. In many school districts, it has been made a reading book for the younger classes, and should be found in every family where there are youths seeking knowledge. Orders sent to this office will receive our prompt attention, and when *THE EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY* and *The Student and School-mate* are ordered by the same person, the price will be but \$1.50 for the two.

C. JULIUS CÆSAR'S COMMENTARIES ON THE GALLIC WAR: elucidated by English Notes, critical and explanatory, and illustrated by Maps, Plans of the Battles, Views, and a Lexicon of all the words contained in the text. By N. C. Brooks, A. M., President of the Baltimore Female College. First edition, 12mo., pp. 351. Published by A. S. Barnes & Burr, 51 and 53 John street, New York.

Could the school-masters of seventy-five or a hundred years ago, after a sort of Rip-Van-Winkle nap of that duration, again resume their stations and wield the birch as of old, we imagine there is nothing among the numberless improvements in education which would be more likely to open their heavy eyelids with astonishment than the wonderful change which has taken place in our school-books. We have been moved to this thought by the inspection of the beautiful school edition of Cæsar, above mentioned, which we think is altogether the finest edition of any classic author—edited for the purposes of elementary instruction—which we have ever seen. It is printed on superior paper; the type is clear and beautiful; a concise and judicious life of Cæsar precedes the text; before each "Liber" is a copious analysis of its contents; the notes are full, and give much interesting information; a Lexicon of all the words of the text affords opportunity for reference and study when a larger Lexicon is not at hand; and the book is profusely illustrated, containing a portrait of Cæsar, a fine map of Ancient Gaul, and numerous wood-cuts of the battles, encampments, and incidents mentioned in the text, and of various ancient weapons, armor, and military paraphernalia;—all of these are points of excellence which we have not time singly to remark and discuss. The character of the "Notes" is worthy of extended notice—which we can not give at this time.

We understand that Professor Brooks has now in press an "original" Latin book, entitled "Viri Illustres Americanæ." The book is to be gotten up in the same superior

style, and will doubtless meet with ready demand.

THE committee appointed some time ago by the New Jersey Legislature, to consider the subject of an Agricultural College, to be established and sustained in that State by the proceeds of a grant of land made for that purpose by Congress, have presented a report recommending that the grant be assigned to Rutgers College at New Brunswick.

THE necessity of combining beauty with utility, in the publication of books, is becoming more and more apparent. We are happy to observe among the leading publishers of school-books a laudable ambition not only to publish works of real merit, but to excel in beauty of typography and illustration. Our attention has lately been called to the new editions of the popular series of school-books published by Mr. J. B. Cowperthwait, of Philadelphia. These books have been revised and greatly improved. They will well repay a careful examination by teachers, and the friends of education generally. Descriptive catalogues and specimens of the books will be promptly supplied by the gentlemanly publisher, when called upon.

THE CALIFORNIA TEACHER: a Journal of School and Home Education. This is a *live* monthly, conducted with spirit and ability. The resident editors are John Swett, George Tait, and Samuel J. C. Swezey, Esq. We happen to *know* this last-named gentleman, and hence do not wonder at the success of this welcome visitor from the Golden State.

GODEY'S LADY'S BOOK FOR 1864.—The publisher has made arrangements for this year, which promise to make it even more successful than in the past few years. The fact that the circulation of this excellent magazine has quadrupled in the last five years, is convincing evidence of the hold it has upon the popular taste. Articles by Marion Harland, Virginia F. Townsend, Mrs. S. J. Hale, T. S. Arthur, and a host of other popular writers, are announced for the coming year.

TERMS: \$3 per year; two copies, \$5; three copies, \$8; and four copies, \$7; being a reduction in price to the old terms before the war. Address L. A. Godey, Philadelphia.

CATALOGUE OF SCHOOL MERCHANDISE.—The publishers of the *American Educational Monthly* have lately prepared a catalogue of valuable school-books and school merchandise. This will interest and profit teachers and school officers, to whom it will be sent on application with stamp.